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ABSTRACT

The attraction and recruitment of qualified teachers as a responsibility of school leaders is discussed in this paper. Included are an examination of factors contributing to teacher shortage, identification of school-based reform targets that address the work and working conditions of teachers, and a discussion of the implications of such conditions for institutional leaders, especially principals. A conclusion is that redesigning aspects of the work of teachers and the work environment in schools are two important means by which principals can enhance the appeal of teaching as a worthwhile vocational choice. Because teachers are a source of ideas, a recommendation is made for principals to listen, interpret, and respond to teachers' concerns. Listening, interpreting, and responding to teachers' concerns are discussed as ways in which principals can contribute to staff development. (45 references) (LMI)

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The Challenge for School Leaders: Attracting and Retaining Good Teachers

DIANA G. POUNDER

INTRODUCTION

A fundamental challenge school leaders must address during the next five years is to attract and retain enough qualified teachers to staff our nation's schools. The objectives in this chapter are to outline briefly contributors to the growing shortage of teachers, to identify school-based reform targets addressing the work and the working conditions of teachers, and to discuss the implications of such strategies for instructional leaders, particularly school principals. The basic thesis in this chapter is that a primary responsibility of instructional leaders is to create school conditions that teachers will find attractive and that will enable teachers to do their jobs well.

Recent projections indicate that by 1988 there will be only enough teachers available to supply about 80 percent of the demand (Darling-Hammond, 1984). Strategies to meet the impending shortage fall into four basic categories: increasing the base pay for teachers, restructuring the career and the system of monetary incentives associated with performance, revising preparation program standards, improving working conditions, and redesigning the work of teachers (Cresap, McCormick, and Paget, 1984; Feistritzer 1983). Although the author agrees that much must and can be done to revitalize the teaching profession, many of the proposed reforms will cost money that taxpayers may be reluc-

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tant to provide. Restructuring the profession and making fundamental changes in teacher preparation programs will take time. Plans to link pay incentives to performance have met with resistance from teacher associations.

However, improving working conditions and redesigning the work of teachers, unlike the other strategies, can proceed immediately and do not necessarily require any major increases in direct expenditures for school personnel (Cresap, McCormick, and Paget, 1984; Lieberman and Miller, 1984). Additionally, these two strategies lend themselves to local initiative and are likely to receive strong support from teachers and their professional associations.

The intention is not to suggest that redesigning the work and improving the working conditions of teachers is an adequate substitute for increasing levels of teacher compensation, improving their preparation, or restructuring the career. Rather, enhancing working conditions and making the work itself more attractive represent relatively low-cost initiatives that can be undertaken immediately by school principals and teachers, with the support of the district superintendent and central office staff. Teachers *are* the key resource in schools, and their cultivation and development is a central responsibility of instructional leaders at every level.

THE IMPENDING SHORTAGE OF TEACHERS

During the past two decades teachers have expressed growing dissatisfaction with teaching as a career. In the early 1970s 10 percent of teachers stated that they wished they had chosen a different career, and by the early 1980s nearly 40 percent of all teachers expressed similar doubts (National Education Association, 1982). Further, Darling-Hammond (1984) reports that less than half of the teaching force sampled in 1980–81 intended to continue teaching until retirement, and that the best qualified teachers appear to be the most dissatisfied. Contributors to the growing shortage and threats to the overall quality of the teaching work force are summarized below:

- fewer persons are completing bachelor's degrees in education
- the academic ability of incoming teachers is declining
- the attrition rate is greatest during the early years and among the most highly qualified teachers
- education is steadily declining as the occupation of choice among women
- the base pay of teachers is lower than in other fields requiring a bachelor's degree, and the average pay of teachers declined 15 percent in real dollars during the 1971–81 period
- shortages already exist in mathematics, the sciences, and other specialty areas, and are expected to grow into a general shortage by the late 1980s

- a "mini baby-boom" will affect school enrollments in the mid–1980s and continue through the 1990s

(Darling-Hammond, 1984).

The statistics regarding the availability of new teacher candidates are discouraging. Since the early 1970s the percentage of graduates receiving bachelor's degrees in education dropped from over 32 percent to 14 percent of the total number of bachelor degrees awarded (National Education Association, 1981). Further, statistics indicate that as few as 50 to 70 percent of those completing teacher training programs actually enter the classroom (Feistritzer, 1983; National Center for Education Statistics, 1982b). During the same period the number of entering college freshmen expressing intent to become teachers dropped from nearly 20 percent to less than 5 percent (Feistritzer, 1983). Projections indicate that these trends will not change substantially, at least through the remainder of the 1980s.

These supply trends are further exacerbated by evidence suggesting that the more academically capable teacher candidates are not being placed in or remaining in the classroom (Schlechty and Vance, 1981). There has been a decline in the academic ability of students planning to become teachers, as measured by the Scholastic Aptitude Test (National Center for Education Statistics, 1982a), and it appears that the rate of attrition is highest among the most qualified (Vance and Schlechty, 1982). National teacher turnover rates average about 6 percent annually, but evidence suggests that as many as 50 to 60 percent of those entering the profession leave within the first four years (Schlechty and Vance, 1983).

Studies suggest also that the "best and brightest" are no longer being drawn to or remaining in the classroom (Boyer, 1983; National Center for Education Statistics, 1982a; National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983). Though numerous reasons are offered to explain this change, the most compelling is the competition for competent professional women from other fields, such as business and science. Unlike previous times, teaching and nursing no longer have a "captive" labor market in terms of professionally oriented women.

Between 1970 and 1980 the number of women receiving bachelor's degrees in education dropped from 36 percent to 18 percent (National Center for Education Statistics, 1983). During the same period the proportion of degrees granted to women increased tenfold in the biological sciences, computer sciences, engineering, and law, with a parallel shift in the occupational choice of women from education, English, and the social sciences to business, commerce, and the health professions (Darling-Hammond, 1984: 8, 9; National Center for Education Statistics, 1983: 184, 188).

Other fields have not only provided more career alternatives for

women, but also more attractive salaries. While the annual rate of increase in teachers' salaries nationwide is approximately 9 percent (Halstead, 1983), the beginning salaries for teachers are lower than in any other field requiring a bachelor's degree (Darling-Hammond, 1984; National Education Association, 1983). Further, despite increases in average levels of experience and education among teachers in the work force between 1971 and 1981, the average salaries of teachers declined almost 15 percent in real dollars (Darling-Hammond, 1984; National Center for Education Statistics, 1983: 102–3). Education has been steadily losing women (traditionally a majority of the work force in education) to fields offering greater career alternatives and higher salaries.

In contrast to the shrinking supply of highly qualified teachers is a changing demand pattern for teachers at all levels and in certain specializations. While declining student enrollments during the 1970s resulted in a large reduction in force among school employees, a "mini-baby boom" during the late 1970s has resulted in an increase in school enrollments that is expected to last through much of the 1990s (Darling-Hammond, 1984). The projected demand for preschool and elementary teachers is expected to increase by nearly 40 percent from the early 1980s to the middle 1990s. Although secondary schools will not experience this student population increase until the early 1990s, the eventual demand for secondary teachers is expected to increase by 13 percent (National Education Association, 1981).

Certain subject area specializations are already experiencing shortages. These shortages are greatest in mathematics and the sciences, but include many areas of vocational education, special education, industrial arts, bilingual education, and speech correction. Among the mathematics and science teachers hired in 1981, less than half were certified or eligible for certification in the areas they were assigned to teach, and less than 60 percent of newly hired secondary teachers in other subject areas met this criterion (Darling-Hammond, 1984: 4; National Center for Education Statistics, 1983). The shortage is most severe in the areas of math and science, and is expected to expand into a more general shortage by the late 1980s and early 1990s.

Compounding the more general national trends in teacher supply and demand are regional shifts in population. There is a general migration to the Sunbelt states, a proportionately greater increase in blacks (17 percent increase from 1970 to 1980) and Spanish-speaking persons (60 percent increase from 1970 to 1980), and an increase in the percent of minority persons living in large cities and certain states (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1981). By the year 2000, fifty-three major U.S. cities and the state of California are expected to have a majority of "minority" residents (Futrell, 1983). As a result, certain cities and regions (e.g., the South, Southwest, and West) are expected to feel the pinch of a teacher shortage sooner and more dramatically than others.

These trends suggest a crisis of major proportions in education, and school principals can be expected to bear the major burden of these shortages. There are good teachers in our schools and they need to be retained. There are good recruits who do enter teaching, and they need to be encouraged to remain in education.

School principals cannot raise the base pay of teachers, restructure the teaching career, or directly influence the quality of teacher education programs. They can do much, however, to improve the work environment in schools, and they can do much to facilitate the redesign of the work of teachers to make it more attractive and satisfying. Teachers themselves are the key resource to more effective schools, and their observations and suggestions have much to offer instructional leaders at all levels, particularly school principals.

WORKING CONDITIONS AND THE "WORK" OF TEACHERS

Numerous factors have been identified as contributing to the unattractiveness of teaching as a career, including low salaries, low prestige, limited job options within the field of teaching itself, and unattractive working conditions (Boyer, 1983; Cresap, McCormick, and Paget, 1984; Feistritzer, 1983; Goodlad, 1984; Lortie, 1975; Rosenholtz and Smylie, 1983). The related problems of the occupational attractiveness of education and of the retention of qualified teachers are generally recognized as complex, and as requiring multiple solution strategies targeted at increasing basic compensation, improving teacher education, restructuring the teach ing career itself, and improving the work and working conditions (Cresap, McCormick, and Paget, 1984; Darling-Hammond, 1984; Griffin, 1984; Lieberman and Miller, 1984).

The work of teachers, working conditions in schools, and organizational structures and processes represent one cluster of elements over which school administrators and teachers can exercise considerable control, and these are among the factors theoretically and empirically associated with employee motivation, involvement, and job satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Bridges, 1980; Duke, Showers, and Imker, 1980; Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman, 1959; Miskel, 1973; Miskel, 1982, Miskel, Feverly, and Stewart, 1979; Schwab and Iwanicki, 1982; Sergiovanni, 1967; Sterns and Porter, 1979). While competing theories and limited research on these matters in schools make it difficult for administrators to derive specific policy strategies, the available evidence does indicate that work itself, working conditions, and associated organizational structures and processes are related to productivity, turnover, morale, and associated variables (Bullock, 1984).

The work of teachers and the conditions that shape it have been

described in various studies, and "understandings" of the social realities of teaching provide a critical reference point for instructional leadership and school improvement (Bidwell, 1965; Cusick, 1983; Dreeben, 1970, Jackson, 1968, Lortie, 1975, Waller, 1952). These and other studies underscore the essentially social character of teaching and its complexity.

Central aspects of the work of teachers have been captured by Lieberman and Miller (1978) and are summarized here to illustrate aspects of teaching that frequently tend to be neglected by those who formulate instructional improvement policies and school reform strategies:

> The "style" of a teacher is developed through a trial and error process shaped by a confluence of contradictory forces—the necessity to teach children something, to keep them motivated to learn, and to keep the students under control. Teaching is learned in isolation from other adults, and the "rewards" that count most are intrinsic and come from their work with students. Most of the feedback for teachers comes from students, and there are few opportunities to work with peers on instructional matters. Teachers work under conditions of uncertainty, never being sure that what they do will have the desired effect on children, and working under a cloud of expectations from others that often fail to consider the difficulties faced by teachers. The knowledge base available to teachers is relatively weak and not well codified, and teachers frequently look for better ways to be successful in reaching students. Teaching involves a lot of intangibles, and the connections between activities and outcomes are ambiguous and unpredictable; teaching is more like a craft than a science. Teachers work under a press for accountability, yet school goals are often unclear and even contradictory, translating goals into actions are an individualized affair. Given the student subculture, teachers work hard to establish the control norms needed to move a class along and give it direction, and these often are influenced by school-wide norms regarding what it means to be a good teacher. And, teachers work in a setting that offers little support to their personal professional development; it's a sink or swim model where teachers generally work in isolation from one another.
>
> (condensed from Lieberman and Miller, 1978: 55–57)

Further, in describing the "dailiness" of teaching, Leiberman and Miller (1978) note the "rhythms, rules, interactions, and feelings of teachers." Some of their observations are summarized below:

> Teachers work in a highly regulated environment, rarely leaving it during the day, accommodating interruptions to their teaching, completing a variety of clerical duties, adjusting to the constant press of the class schedule in secondary schools, and trying to adapt activities in elementary

classes to the energy levels and moods of their students and themselves. They adopt a criterion of practicality in judging an idea's worth; solutions to problems are valued to the extent that they're concrete, immediate, and don't require too much work, and they tend not to share their experiences or their ideas with other teachers, students, administrators, or others outside the school. Their interactions with one another are not very open, tend to be limited to griping or jousting with each other, and generally aren't focused on substantive instructional matters. Relationships with students are primary and frequently go beyond teaching the subject to serving children as a role-model. They have comparatively few interactions with the principal, though the principal is viewed as having a great deal of power in influencing a teacher's work life. Teachers express ambivalence about the primacy of children in their daily work lives, are conflicted about how good they are as a teacher, and feel frustrated in trying to influence events outside their classrooms.

(condensed from Lieberman and Miller, 1978: 57–64)

These descriptions of the work of teachers provide hints to instructional leaders and educational policymakers about work and work-environment factors that may be associated with one's teaching effectiveness, with the attractiveness of schools as work settings, and with the satisfaction of teaching as "work." The number and types of factors that might be identified by teachers as sources of stress and frustration will vary across different school contexts and teaching circumstances. Conditions perceived as problematic could be quite extensive and might include elements such as:

- Excessive noninstructional duties and tasks
- Inaccessible media equipment and facilities
- A noise-polluted work-space
- Inadequate heating and cooling systems
- Lack of regular and systematic feedback on performance
- Paperwork overloads
- Inequitable scheduling and duty assignments
- Few or no opportunities to stop and relax during the school day
- Outdated equipment and instructional materials
- Poor lighting and lighting control
- Inadequate help with special students
- Overcrowded facilities
- An ineffective student discipline program
- Being isolated from others and feeling alone
- Too many subjects or students to teach adequately

(Swick and Hanley, 1985)

What is viewed as problematic and which action or policy initiatives are most appropriate will vary across school contexts and teaching circumstances. What serves to reduce dissatisfaction or increase job

satisfaction and productivity in one setting or with one teacher may be inappropriate in different settings or for other teachers. Again, teachers are the key resource in both identifying problematic work and work-environment factors *and* in developing and implementing policies to address those issues.

The research on effective schools suggests numerous ideas aimed at improving classroom teaching practices and creating a school milieu that supports academic achievement by students, but relatively few of those strategies directly address the nature of the work of teachers or their immediate work environment. An exception is the broad admonition to create a safe and orderly environment for learning and teaching. The author supports this general advice and urges the reader to explore additional elements that might facilitate more effective teaching and learning and that might increase the attractiveness of working in schools.

It may be possible, through redesigning the work, to increase teachers' opportunities to gain intrinsic rewards and thereby to increase their job satisfaction and their motivation to teach well (Blase and Greenfield, 1981). For example, Lortie's study of teachers and their work concludes that intrinsic (psychic) rewards are teachers' major source of satisfaction, and that extrinsic rewards like pay and benefits are not a major source of satisfaction because they are derived primarily on the basis of seniority and advanced education, not on the basis of teacher effort and performance at work (Lortie, 1975). This relationship may change to the degree that compensation is linked directly to performance, as in the merit pay and career ladder proposals being debated and (in some states) implemented (Cresap, McCormick, and Paget, 1984). Nevertheless, it seems reasonable to conclude at this point that intrinsic rewards are still an important source of job satisfaction for teachers and that they are related to work efforts by teachers. Thus, to the extent that the work itself and conditions in the work environment can be made more attractive and intrinsically rewarding to teachers, motivation, work effort, job dissatisfaction, and productivity may be influenced in desirable directions.

The development and implementation of policies and practices aimed at accomplishing these broad objectives represent a potent but largely untested set of instructional improvement strategies available to school administrators. Some of these policies and the attendant strategies might be quite complex and aimed at changing the flow of work, the scope of responsibility, the school climate, some facet of the school culture, or perhaps the level of work interdependency among teachers (Bridges, 1980; Spady and Marx, 1984). Other strategies might be quite simple, taking less time and fewer resources, for example, reducing the number of intrusions in teachers' classrooms, painting corridors or rooms and otherwise "brightening-up" the physical en-

vironment, or perhaps making adequate instructional materials available and accessible to teachers.

In large measure, instructional leadership involves creating the conditions necessary for teachers to be effective and satisfied, and focusing teachers and instructional programs on the purposes and objectives to be achieved. The discussion thus far has suggested that the work of teachers and working conditions in schools can be influenced directly by school principals, and that redesigning the teacher's role and developing more favorable working conditions promises a twofold possibility: (1) increasing the attractiveness of teaching as "work," and of schools as work settings; and (2) increasing the likelihood that teachers will be effective and will find their work personally and professionally rewarding.

Because the work of teachers and the working conditions in schools have not been studied as extensively as other elements believed to be associated with effective schools, the suggestions offered in the next section are necessarily speculative and rather broad in scope. Nevertheless, school administrators and others concerned with leading and improving instruction are encouraged to embark on what might be called a school-based "study of practice" strategy for engaging teachers in a search for ways in which school working conditions and the work of teaching might be enhanced.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERS

The recommendations that follow seem simple and quite obvious, but the author suggests that they represent a much-neglected, yet promising set of strategies for improving schools. The goal of the strategies proposed below is twofold. The first objective is to identify and respond to matters of concern to teachers regarding their work and working conditions in their schools; the second is to cultivate a norm among teachers and administrators that places a positive value on the "study of practice" and "designing and experimenting" with strategies to improve practice.

School administrators cannot single-handedly make schools more effective. Teachers themselves are the key resource in schools, and the basic challenge for instructional leaders is to tap and cultivate teachers as vital sources of information regarding problems and strategies for enhancing their work and the general working conditions in their schools. The recommendations that follow are offered as a starting point for achieving these two objectives.

Listen

The first step for any instructional leader is to listen to the concerns of teachers. Some messages may be loud and direct, others more sub-

dued and indirect. Frustrations may include everything from poor climate control in the building to inadequate resources to deal with problem students. Given the variety of school settings and work-environment factors, the potential list of teacher dissatisfactions and frustrations could be quite extensive.

In addition to listening to teachers' concerns about immediate work-environment factors, school leaders need to be attentive to the personal life dimensions and life-styles of faculty members. In order to attract and retain quality teachers, principals must begin to think in terms of the "whole person" when considering the work and working conditions of teachers. Schools are staffed by people who are multi-dimensional; work is only one component of their lives. The personal-life dimensions of employees are often overlooked or discounted in studying organizations and work improvement strategies. However, these personal-life factors may be central to teachers' employment decisions and work behavior. For example, the length of the school day and work year is viewed by many as an attractive feature of the occupation; some teachers, however, may prefer an eight-hour day and an eleven-month contract. For some teachers the typically short lunch period might be seen as a positive work feature (the price you pay for a shorter day), while those who value the opportunity to exercise or socialize with colleagues, as a way to relieve work stresses (or to meet adult affiliation needs at work), may prefer a longer lunch period. Attentive educational leaders need to consider how work factors might enhance or positively complement teachers' personal life priorities, as well as their professional life concerns.

The opportunities for gleaning information about faculty concerns are numerous. Principals will find that teachers may discuss certain kinds of issues in faculty meetings, but will share other frustrations only in a one-to-one exchange with the principal or a close colleague. Other "gripes" may be aired only in the faculty room or behind closed doors. No matter what the particular circumstance, be it through a formal or informal network, or in a group or individual setting, it is clear that the messages will be there for the principal who is attentive, "tuned-in," and listening.

Interpret

In addition to listening to teachers' messages, it will sometimes be necessary to interpret or "read between the lines" of a message. A teacher's verbal complaint of "too many children in the classroom" may really be intended to express any one of a variety of more specific concerns: "there isn't enough space for five small-group work situations"; "I can't manage, let alone *teach* this many students"; or "the

teacher across the hall always seems to get fewer problem students than I do." The ability of a school principal to interpret accurately the concerns of teachers thus often requires "ferreting-out" the more covert information, and interpreting that information given his or her understanding of the individual and group dynamics of the faculty in that particular school.

Another function of interpreting teachers' concerns includes being able to see the "fit" between the type of employee and the nature of the work. While one cannot make sweeping generalizations about any occupational group, one might assume some global characteristics of individuals choosing to become teachers. For example, one could probably safely assume that persons in the teaching profession (as well as other human service occupations) typically prefer to work and be engaged with people (as opposed to machines or data only). If that assumption is correct, then one needs to consider which aspects of the work itself (i.e., teaching) may fail to meet the needs of that type of person. One of the most frequently identified characteristics of teaching as an occupational role is that most of the work is done in isolation from one's colleagues (Knoblock and Goldstein, 1971; Little, 1982; Lortie; 1975). There is very little structured time for engaging in meaningful work activities or instructional problem solving with other teachers or instructional personnel. This might be an example of the incompatibility of a feature of the structure of the work itself with the type of persons occupying or interested in entering the teaching profession.

Another example might follow from the assumption that teachers or potential teachers are individuals who want to help others or want to improve "the system" in some way. Aspects of the work of teaching that may frustrate or dishearten an altruistically oriented individual might include the complexity, uncertainty, or even contradiction of expectations felt from multiple others, as well as the "fuzziness" of the connection between multiple variables affecting student behavior and achievement (Lieberman and Miller, 1984). Initiatives by school leaders to reduce these frustrations might include simplifying and prioritizing school goals each year so that all faculty members understand and feel a shared sense of responsibility for the achievement of a few well-specified objectives. Evidence of their contribution to attained results might help teachers feel more intrinsic satisfaction from their work, that they are "making a difference" as teachers.

These are but several examples of the types of interpretation functions that might be required of instructional leaders in order for them to identify accurately problems associated with the work of teachers or with working conditions in schools. This interpretation

step is critical because resolution of the "stated" problem may not adequately reduce dissatisfaction if the "true" problem goes unnoticed.

Respond

After having gathered and analyzed relevant data about teachers' concerns regarding their work or work environment, it is critical that school leaders respond appropriately, and in a timely fashion. The author's personal experience would suggest that nothing is likely to contribute to poor morale more quickly than a principal who solicits "input" and then shows no evidence of having done anything with it. Granted, no one can wave a magic wand and "make it all better." Many problems are too complex or complicated to be "fixed" easily. However, some sort of administrative response is required to keep employees from feeling a sense of hopelessness, from becoming apathetic or becoming increasingly frustrated.

While evidence of responsiveness to short term, relatively simple and concrete problems may be visible immediately (e.g., "the page counter on the duplicating machine is working now"), evidence of responsiveness to more long-term, abstract, or complicated problems may not be so apparent. The principal may need to offer a periodic progress report to faculty concerning the resolution of more complex issues; if a problem cannot be addressed at the school level; by the principal, or if it is an issue that the principal feels must be addressed at a later date (or slowly, over a longer period), then the reasons for the delay (or perhaps a compromise decision) must be adequately explained to teachers. If this is done, it will be apparent to teachers that their voice has been heard and that the principal has made a reasonable effort to respond to their concerns.

CONCLUSIONS

Redesigning aspects of the work of teachers and the work environment in schools represent two important means by which school principals can enhance the attractiveness of choosing and remaining in education as a vocation. It was suggested that teachers themselves represent an untapped reservoir of ideas regarding ways in which the work and working conditions of teachers might be enhanced. Listening, interpreting, and responding to teachers' concerns were discussed as three key activities through which school principals could fulfill their responsibility to develop a productive and satisfied instructional staff. Schools will become more attractive and more effective as teachers

begin to "study their practice" and to experiment with strategies to improve their practice.

Practices such as those discussed in this chapter represent a critical point of leverage for instructional leaders and hold much promise relative to improving school effectiveness and keeping good teachers. Teachers are the critical resource in schools, and a central dimension of the school principal's role is to attract and develop effective teachers and to provide them with the instructional materials and the work environment they need in order to perform their jobs well. While it is clearly appropriate to address some of the more specialized personnel management functions at the district level (e.g., salary and compensation policies, collective bargaining agreements, fringe benefit programs, and personnel records-keeping), managing and developing teachers is a central responsibility of the school principal. A productive and satisfied work force is the foundation for an effective school, and developing and focusing the energy and the skills of that work force are essential.

If schools cannot attract, retain, and develop enough well-qualified teachers, they are not likely to be instructionally effective. As the earlier review of teacher supply-and-demand statistics suggests, this is an immediate challenge confronting educators and policymakers at all levels. The failure to recognize and respond to the impending shortage will force administrators to hire marginally qualified instructional personnel, creating undesirable consequences for the instructional effectiveness of schools. Teachers are the key resource in schools, and by listening closely and responding to their ideas, it is suggested that school principals and superintendents can do much to make schools both more productive and more attractive places to work. Accomplishing these two goals can help school leaders meet the challenge of attracting good teachers and keeping them in the profession.

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